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THE UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA

AN INVESTIGATION OF SELF-ESTEEM AND RELATED VARIABLES OF EDUCABLE MENTALLY HANDICAPPED STUDENTS

by

© KATHLEEN M. PATERSON

A THESIS

SUBMITTED TO THE FACULTY OF GRADUATE STUDIES AND RESEARCH IN PARTIAL FULFILMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DEGREE OF MASTER OF EDUCATION

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EDMONTON, ALBERTA

FALL, 1980

THE UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA

FACULTY OF GRADUATE STUDIES AND RESEARCH

The undersigned certify that they have read, and recommend to the Faculty of Graduate Studies and Research, for acceptance, a thesis entitled AN INVESTIGATION OF SELF-ESTEEM AND RELATED VARIABLES OF EDUCABLE MENTALLY HANDICAPPED STUDENTS submitted by Kathleen Paterson in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Education.

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ABSTRACT

Correlates of self-esteem exist in current psychological literature. However, research with the educable mentally handicapped has been limited in this area.

This study was designed to examine the self-esteem of Educable Mentally Handicapped students in segregated classrooms, grouped according to level of intelligence, in relation to the variables of intelligence, behaviour and attitudes toward teachers.

Measures of self-esteem were obtained for the seventy subjects by administering to them the Canadian Self-esteem Inventory for Children, as well as administering to their teachers a Teacher Behaviour Rating Form for each student. In addition, students completed an About My Teacher - Affective Domain questionnaire.

Data were analysed using both a correlational design and a t-test.

Significant correlations were found between the variables of student-rated self-esteem and teacher-rated student behaviour, between student-rated self-esteem and attitude toward teachers, and between intellectual level and teacher-rated student behaviour. In addition, the more intelligent students within the educable mentally handicapped group were found to exhibit more negative behaviour and more negative self-esteem than their less intelligent peers.

Analysis resulted in rejection of five of the null hypotheses. Subjects displayed significant relationships

between self-esteem and behaviour, I.Q. and behaviour, and self-esteem and attitudes. The more intelligent group of educable mentally handicapped students exhibited lower self-esteem and more negative behaviour than the less intelligent group.

Statistical analysis of the results did not reject two of the null hypotheses of the study. Subjects exhibited no significant relationship between level of intelligence and self-esteem, nor between attitudes toward the teacher and behaviour.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

A basic need of each individual is to maintain and enhance the self (Snygg & Combs, 1949). In other words, positive self-esteem is a necessary component of an adequate personality which, in turn, perceives itself as being capable and effective within the confines of the relevant culture.

While the importance of positive self-esteem is an established fact, the concept itself continues to be elusive. According to Yamamoto (1972), "research is relatively limited, standardized measures are largely non-existent, and terminology is obscure" (p.81). Zisfein and Rosen (1974) add that operational definitions of self-concept (and its component - self-esteem) vary from study to study, and instrumentation has been so diverse as to make generalizations difficult. Particularly there appears to be a dearth of research examining the self-esteem of special class students (Wylie, 1961) possibly due to the difficulties involved with the measurement of the behaviour from which the concept can be inferred. As Bennett (1964) noted, however, the fact that behaviour is subjective should not automatically preclude its measurability.

Another partial explanation for limited research relating self-esteem to the variables involved with special class placement appears to be in the erroneous asumption that a high intelligence is a necessary contributor to positive self-esteem (Coopersmith, 1959). As Coopersmith points out, the assumption that healthy self-esteem is largely the function of high intelligence cannot be made because there are too many

other influencing variables. The implication is that although some children are segregated according to "low" intelligence, their self-concepts (and self-esteem) remain separate entities, worthy of separate consideration. In fact, Glasser (1965) has considered self-esteem to be more essential in learning than high intelligence.

What, then, is the relationship between intelligence and self-esteem of the special, segregated class student? Can we validly measure his self-esteem from overt behaviours? Are special education teachers, as significant others, able to make reliable inferences as to the self-esteems of their students?

As Pipitone (1975), Cline (1977) and others have noted, further research is needed in the area of self-esteem and its correlates, especially in the field of special education.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this research was to investigate the relationships between the student-rated self-esteem of junior opportunity children, their intellectual capacities, their attitudes toward their teachers, and their observable behaviours as rated by their teachers.

A subsidiary purpose was to determine the ease of administration of the Canadian Self-Esteem Inventory for Children (Battle, 1976) to educable mentally handicapped students.

The findings of the study were intended to increase our understanding of the special student as a means of facilitating student-teacher relationships, and to promote additional awareness of the whole child.

Background to the Study

Albeit limited, the research in the area of self-esteem is largely concerned with the relationship between self-esteem and academic achievement, and is not necessarily related to the special class student (Chapman & Boersma, 1979, Borg, 1966, Engel & Raine, 1963, Goldberg, Passow & Justman, 1966, Purkey, 1970). Studies which have been done in this area focus primarily on the total effects of special class placement on students' self-esteem. The results of these studies tend to be discrepant. For example, while Borg (1966), Main (1960) and Meyerowitz (1962) found the self-esteem of educable mentally retarded children assembled in collectives to be more negative than those of similar students in integrated environments, Drew (1962), Higging (1962), Goldberg, Passow & Justman (1961) and Battle (1978) observed the opposite. Other researchers (e.g. Mayer, 1966, McMillan, 1965, and Ringness, 1961) have found no relationships between length of time in a special class and self-esteem. It was further noted by Meyerowitz that the nature of the deviation called mental retardation affects self-esteem even when it is not severe (I.Q. 65-85) and has not been given official recognition. However, he did not indicate the direction or degree of the relationship between retardation and self-esteem.

Iano (1972) stated that there is reason to believe that intelligence is an important contributor to effectiveness and thus to high self-esteem. This assumption was supported by McGarvie (1970, Monroe (1975), Cline (1977), Guthrie (1963), Curtis (1964) and Lo Bianco (1966) who found that higher

intelligence educable mentally retarded children (e.g. I.Q. 79-85) have more positive self-esteems than their lower intelligence (e.g. I.Q. 50-64) peers. Coopersmith (1959) found a statistically significant correlation between self-esteem and intelligence ($r = .28$).

These results seem to contradict the hypothesis that children in lower intellectual ranges are more oblivious to their plight and have therefore more positive self-esteem (Laurence & Winchel, 1973). In contrast to this hypothesis, Thursten (1959), Bennett (1964) and Mayer (1966) suggested that because brighter mentally retarded children (I.Q.70-85) have greater discrepancies between achievement and achievement expectancies than duller children (I.Q.50-69) they may suffer from more negative self-esteem. Thus research results relating intelligence and self-esteem of educable mentally retarded children appear to be both conflicting and divergent.

Less divergence is noted in the data which considers the importance of significant others to children, and their consequent effects on thechildren's self-esteem (Andrews, 1966). Teachers are significant others to their students, and a definite relationship exists between the ways individuals feel about themselves and the way in which they feel about such important persons (Stock, 1949; Coopersmith, 1959; Davidson & Lang, 1960; Combs, 1962; Murphy, 1947; Yamamoto, 1972; Wylie, 1961). Snygg & Combs (1949) stated that acceptance of self (and resulting positive self-esteem) is closely related to the acceptance of significant others. Similarly, Beck (1964) stressed the importance of students' attitudes toward their teachers in the development and maintenance of positive self-esteem, and presented results supporting pupils' abilities to

evaluate their teachers accurately.

Of equal importance are the teachers' attitudes toward, and impressions of, the students, for the observer (in this case the teacher) may infer the self-esteem from the nature of overt behaviour (Combs & Snygg, 1949, Mischel, 1977). In some instances the observed behaviour may be subtle, but nontheless indicative of the underlying self. In fact, Yamamoto pointed out that there are many seemingly unimportant aspects of behaviour that can make a significant contribution to the teachers' understanding of a child's self-esteem. With regard to teachers' ability to assess children's behaviour, researchers have found that teachers judged students, on questionnaires, much as students judged themselves on self-reports (Coopersmith, 1959, Battle, 1979, Perkins, 1958, Borg, 1966). Perkins (1958) stated that teachers' perceptions of children's self-concepts are in general positively and significantly related to these children's expressed self-concepts. This assessment by the teachers, the significant others, becomes part of a circular pattern in which a child's assessment of himself is influenced by the assessment significant others make of him.

To summarize, self-esteem cannot be measured directly, but must be inferred from behaviour. Assuming a common situation (such as a special education class), it is possible to speculate that differences in behaviour may reflect differences in self-esteem. Kelly (1967) stated that "in spite of their known fallibility, human judges (teachers) tend to show considerable agreement in the assessment of traits" (p.60). Battle & Coopersmith supported this premise. In support of students' abilities

rate themselves and their teachers, Beck states:

> Since students themselves are the primary and ultimate source of information on their own opinions, we must accept their opinions as valid, for there is no higher authority to which appeal can be made. Their verdicts concerning their own opinions are, therefore, as valid or true as they are reliable. Here is one situation in which it can be said that validity is synonymous with reliability. (p.29)

To assist readers with some of the terms used in this study of self-esteem, the following section provides definitions.

Definition of Terms

Self-Concept refers to the organization of all the ways an individual has of seeing himself (Snygg & Combs, 1959). It is a system of ideas, attitudes, values and commitments; a person's total subjective environment; it is the distinctive centre of experience and significance (Jersild, 1952).

Self-Esteem refers to a useful approximation of a larger organization (self-concept) (Zisfein & Rosen, 1974). As measured by the Canadian Self Esteem Inventories (Battle) self-esteem refers to the perception one has of his own worth.

Junior Opportunity Students are those students, aged 9 - 12, who, because of their inability to meet the academic requirements of their age peers in a regular classroom and who, based on intellectual assessments of I.Q's of 50-80, have been placed in special, segregated classes called Junior Opportunity classrooms.

Intelligence, as it is used in this study, refers to that which is measured by intelligence tests.

I.Q. refers to the derived intellectual quotient with a mean of 100 and a standard deviation of 16 (Stanford Binet Intelligence Scale, 1972) or 15 (Weschler Intelligence Scale for Children, 1974).

Attitude refers to a way of thinking or feeling. In this study, it refers particularly to ways of thinking with regard to the teacher, i.e. the degree of like or dislike of the current teacher.

Negative behaviour, for the purpose of this study, refers to observable behaviour rated, by teachers, closer to the negative pole (e.g. "1") rather than the positive pole (e.g. "5") on a continuum of 1 to 5.

Group 1 includes those students whose I.Q. scores fall between 50 and 75.

Group 2 includes those students whose I.Q. scores fall between 76 and 95.

Affective Domain refers to feelings and values.

Overview of the Study

Chapter I has provided an introduction to the problem under study. It included a statement of the problem, background to the problem, definitions and study overview.

Chapter II reviews the research and literature related to self-concept, intelligence and attitudes. Encompassed within the section on intelligence is an overview of less than "normal" intelligence, or an Educable Mental Handicap (EMH). The chapter integrates the variables from which the research questions and hypotheses are drawn.

Chapter III includes a description of the sample, the research instruments, the collection of data, the assumptions and limitations and the procedures for analysing the data.

Chapter IV presents the analysis and interpretation of the data.

Chapter V, the final chapter, summarizes the findings and conclusions of the study. Implications for Special Education practice and suggestions for further research are noted.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE AND RESEARCH

Introduction and Chapter Overview

Interest in the self is not a recent phenomenon. As early as the seventeenth century Rene Descartes first discussed the "cognito" or self, as a "thinking substance" (Hamachek, 1971). From that time forward the self as a psychological construct evolved with the science of psychology.

For the purpose of this study, this evolvement, or historical development of the self is traced from three psychological perspectives - psychoanalytic, humanistic, and cognitive.

This section precedes a review of the literature related to the component of self-concept known as self-esteem, its definition, measurement, and positive as well as negative effects on behaviour. Some generalizations are drawn from the literature.

A review of the literature on the remaining variables included in this study follows. The nature of intelligence - its historical development, definitions, and operational definition appropriate to this study is outlined. The discussion of intelligence leads directly to consideration of "lower" or "less than normal" intelligence, and thus to the Educable Mentally Handicapped (EMH) person, and thus a brief review of the literature dealing with the condition known as an Educable Mental Handicap is included.

The literature on the final variable, that of "attitudes" of both teacher and student, is reviewed.

In conclusion, an attempt is made to integrate the included variables, and thereby to demonstrate the significance of their relationships to the major variable of self-esteem. Research questions and hypotheses are drawn from the integration of the variables.

Historical Perspective

Much of the contemporary theorizing about self-concept derives from James (1890) who adopted a psychodynamic view of the self including spiritual, material, and social aspects. He considered the "ego" the individual's sense of identity, and concluded that human aspirations and values have an essential role in determining whether one regards oneself favourably or not. According to James, our evaluative self-feeling (or what we now refer to as self-esteem) is determined by the degree of success experienced in reaching the aspirational level of self. He defined self as being "the sum total of all that man can call his" (James, 1890; p.291).

James' interest in the self laid the groundwork for the views and theories of self held by the subsequent psychoanalytic, humanistic and cognitive theorists of the future.

1. Psychoanalytic Approach to Self

Psychoanalytic theory is rich in detail. It attempts to encompass all of human behaviour within a general set of postulates, assumptions and derivations (Baldwin, 1968).

Freud, the originator of psychoanalysis, unlike James, his predecessor, paid little attention to self-esteem. Instead, he postulated "Drive Theory" and a "Theory of the Unconscious" which he combined to create a "Theory of Psychosexual Development" (Freud, 1905). Drive Theory states that organisms are instigated to action only by strong and painful external stimuli, that have been associated with painful internal stimuli in the past (Hunt, 1969). According to Freud, the aim of all behaviour is to remove these stimuli which produce excitation to the nervous system. Moreover, his theory of psychosexual development states that an individual's character is largely a function of the fate of these intrinsic drives to remove stimuli and the emotional conditions attached to the stimuli (Hunt, 1969). He gave the "ego" a central place in his theory and defined it as the functional agent which controls action and maintains a "psychic balance". That dimension of self which has come to be recognized as the core of decision-making today, has borrowed the name "ego" from Freud (Labenne & Greene, 1969).

The main contribution of Freud's psychoanalytic theory to self-concept theory, then, was the idea of the "ego". A strong or weak ego, in Freud's terms, can be equated with positive or negative self-esteem respectively.

The basic criticism of psychoanalytic theory is that it focuses on thoughts and feelings as the real data, and these dimensions are relatively inaccessible (Baldwin, 1968). In this respect, psychoanalytic theory suffers from similar methodological problems as does self-concept theory. It would

appear possible that many of the variables in Freud's theory (e.g. thoughts, feelings, wishes) are the same variables with which self-concept theory is concerned. As Felker (1974) pointed out,

> The emphasis of the Freudian approach on the dynamic qualities of self has pointed the necessity for looking at self-concept, not only as a product of what others do to an individual, but also as a determiner of what the individual does. (p.21)

The words "what others do" and "what the individual does" remind us of the importance of the interrelationships between the attitudes and observations of significant others, and the behaviour and self-esteem of the individual. This study investigates these interrelationships.

At approximately the same time that Freud was establishing his ideas, the humanistic theorists were also examining the components of self.

2. Humanistic Approach to Self

The humanistic orientation endeavoured to go beyond the point of view of the psychoanalysts, and as a result has provided the greatest number of contributors to self-concept theory.

C.H. Cooley (1902) was one of the earliest humanists to explore the idea of self. His theory placed emphasis on modification of self as a consequence of interpersonal interactions. In addition, he posited the concept of the "looking glass self", or a reflected, social-self. Self-esteem, to Cooley, was highly dependent on accurate perception and interpretation of the reaction of others (Hamachek, 1971).

Like Cooley (1902), G.H.Mead (1934) believed that self-esteem was derived from the reflected appraisal of others (Coopersmith, 1959). Mead's self, however, is an object of awareness rather than a system or process. It is a socially formed self which grows in a social setting where there is social communication (Hamachek, 1971). Once again the importance of the attitudes and observations of significant others to the self-esteem of the individual is highlighted.

In opposition to Cooley's and Mead's socially based self, A.Adler (1927) developed the conception of a "life plan". It is this "plan", "purpose" or "goal" which determines an individual's behaviour. Adler's theory stressed the importance of actual weaknesses, or "organ inferiorities" in producing low self-esteem (Coopersmith, 1959). According to Adler, the role of each individual is to establish a particular life plan to overcome his inherent weaknesses (Hamachek, 1971).

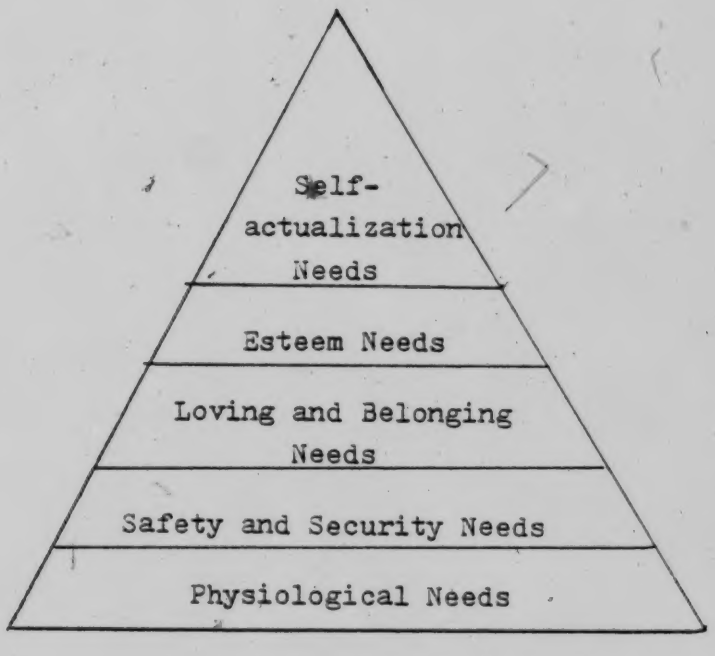
Like his predecessors Cooley (1902) and Mead (1934), Carl Rogers (1951) noted the self to be the result of social interaction with the environment. His self theory represents the self in a dual role. It is an object being acted upon, as well as a process doing the acting (Felker, 1974). In the process of becoming fully functioning, the individual, according to Rogers, develops a greater awareness of self. Similarly, it is only when the individual has developed a self that is uniquely his own that he becomes a "fully functioning person." Whereas Rogers (1951) noted the need to become fully functioning, another humanist, A.Maslow (1954) postulated the need for self-actualization. In addition, his theory deals specifically

with self-esteem. It recognizes the importance of esteem needs as inborn, unique desires which are involved in directing behaviour and therefore is in harmony with the position taken by this study.

Maslow's theory is one of human motivation which assumes that needs are ordered along a hierarchy of priority and prepotency (Hamachek, 1971). When the need which is lowest in the hierarchy is satisfied, then the next highest need may emerge and press for satisfaction. The assumption is made that each person has five basic needs which are arranged as in Figure 1.

Maslow was primarily concerned with the process of self-actualization, or "gratification deriving from the fulfilment of higher needs" (Shaw & Constanzo, 1970: p.181). He referred to this procedure as the process of becoming what one had the potential to become. It can be speculated, then, that the process involved in self-actualization is similar to the process involved in self-esteem development as both move the individual toward a position of self-satisfaction and self-worth.

Maslow sent on to suggest several contributors to the development and maintenance of self-esteem, including significant others, history of successes, individual values and aspirations, and individual manner of responding to devaluations (Coopersmith, 1959).



MASLOW'S HIERARCHY OF NEEDS - FIGURE 1

In summary, according to Maslow, behaviour is seen to be the combination of many needs, personal habits, past experiences, individual talents and capacities, as well as the influence of the external environment. The behaviour associated with esteem needs is assumed to be evident only when needs lower on the hierarchy have been satisfied. As Figure 1 indicates, esteem needs are directly below self-actualization needs, suggesting that they must be met prior to self-actualization of the individual (Maslow, 1954).

A comparison may therefore be made between the study variables of self-esteem, intelligence, attitudes and behaviour, and terms from Maslow's theory of self-actualization (Table I).

Each of the humanistic contributors to self-concept theory tend to espouse a "dynamic" view of human behaviour in the sense of seeing man as an active organism shaped by both heredity and environmental factors. A third group of theorists however, have approached self-concept by concentrating mainly on the cognitive dimensions of self.

3. Cognitive Approach to Self

Cattell's complex theory of intelligence (1950), a contemporary synthesis of the Spearman and Thurston traditions, appears to have significance for self-concept theory (Brody & Brody, 1974). It considers the self to be the principle organizing influence exerted upon man from within himself. The self, then, gives stability and order to human behaviour. In this respect, Cattell's view appears to be similar to that of Freud (1905) who saw the ego as being the principle

VARIABLE	MASLOW'S TERMS
1. Self-esteem	Esteem Needs
2. Intelligence	Talents Capacities Successes
3. Attitudes	Significant Others Values Aspirations External Environment
4. Behaviour	Combination of Above

COMPARISON OF STUDY VARIABLES AND MASLOW'S TERMS

TABLE I

organizing and stabilizing influence on man.

Cattell goes on to distinguish between the actual self of which one is aware (through the process of self-observation), and the ideal self. The degree of discrepancy between the actual and ideal self represents the individual's self-regard. Self-regard, a construct arrived at using a factor analytic approach, can be equated with self-esteem (Brody & Brody, 1974).

In addition, Cattell conceived of the self as being both object (being acted upon and influenced by the environment) and process (directing properties of self). In this way also, Cattell's view is similar to that of Freud (Felker, 1974; Labenne & Greene, 1969; Coopersmith, 1959).

It is possible to make comparisons between the components of Cattell's theory and the variables used in this study. For example, Cattell's objective self, which is environmentally influenced, can be equated with the study's self as it is influenced by significant others (teachers). Similarly his organizational ability of self can be viewed, at least in part, as a measure of intelligence. In addition, Cattell's directing, or process self can be inferred from observable behaviour, much as this study attempts to infer self-esteem from observable behaviour. Finally, Cattell's "actual" self and "aspirational" self are homologous to the true self and the ideal self referred to in this study.

Diggory (1966), another cognitive theorist, concentrated more heavily than Cattell on the way in which individuals evaluate themselves and thereby arrive at their self-esteem (Felker, 1974). Like Cattell, "self" to Diggory is characterized by relationships in which the individual, or some part

of the individual, is both the subject and the object. In other words, the "self" is the result of a type of reflexive relationship between the individual and his environment (Felker, 1974).

Diggory attempted to find more detailed explanations of the mechanism by which the self-concept and self-esteem were developed. His main contribution to self-concept theory was the application of experimental techniques to the study of self, and the demonstration that areas of self-concept can be investigated in controlled scientific settings (Felker, 1974).

Adding an additional dimension, Smith (1960), using factor analysis, uncovered five dimensions of self-concept including self-esteem, anxiety-tension, independence, estrangement, and body image. Factor One (self-esteem) is a "broad dimension weighted at the positive pole by success and satisfaction with life's affairs" (Smith, p.191). Smith pointed out that this factor appears to be the domain implied by most writers when they refer to the self-concept. It is the area to which this investigation is directed.

4. Summary

From the contributions of the above theorists a variety of labels for, and definitions of, self-concept have emerged. From James (1890) came the terms "spirit" and "ego". "Ego" was again discussed by Freud (1905); Cooley (1902) spoke of "looking-glass self", and Mead (1934) of "self as an object of awareness." Adler (1927) introduced the term "life plan" into self-concept theory. Rogers (1951) initiated the idea of a "fully functioning person". Continuing with this idea,

Maslow (1954) developed the term "self-actualization". Cattell (1950) spoke of "self-regard" and, finally, Smith (1960) mentioned "self-esteem", "anxiety-tension", "estrangement", "independence", and "body image". It can be seen, as Zisfein and Rosen (1972) point out, that operational definitions vary from study to study (e.g. "self-regard" and "self-esteem"). Perhaps this is because self-concept is a psychological construct, not an inner entity, a specific substance or a psychic agent which can be measured or seen directly (Labenne & Greene, 1969). Instead, it must be inferred from behaviour.

Self-concept, as it is generally used, is a group of feelings and cognitive processes which are private, personal, and unique to each individual. It is the referent of the pronoun "I" (Helper, 1955). It is, according to Jung (1958) what man's consciousness knows of himself, or according to Snygg & Combs (1949), "the organization of all the ways one has of seeing himself" (p.26). It is the gestalt of man's concepts of self - the map which he consults in order to understand himself (Coopersmith, 1959). In summary, self-concept is that special set of ideas, perceptions and attitudes an individual has about himself (Felker, 1974).

Self-esteem

1. Views of Self-esteem

Although most theorists give limited attention to self-esteem, numerous views of the construct become evident. In an attempt to develop an understanding of self-esteem as an

evaluation of self, some of these views are outlined.

As long ago as 1890 James proposed the following fraction as being descriptive of self esteem:

$$\text{self-esteem} = \frac{\text{success}}{\text{pretentions}}$$

Today, Coopersmith's (1959) definition expands on James' proposal, and appears to be one of the most commonly used.

> ". . . self-esteem refers to the evaluation which an individual makes, and customarily maintains, with regard to himself; it expresses an attitude of approval or disapproval and indicates the extent to which the individual believes himself to be capable, significant and worthy. In short, it is a personal judgement of worthiness that is expressed in the attitudes an individual has toward himself." (p.5)

Battle (1976) developed the following similar definition of self-esteem.

> "Self-esteem as measured by the Canadian Self-esteem Inventories for Children and Adults refers to the perception the individual has of his own worth." (p.16)

The self-esteem an individual has, then, appears to be the ideational and emotional expression of self-evaluation (Jacobson, 1964). Mischel (1977) noted that self-esteem is an identity term which refers to the aspiration level, or performance expectancy an individual has of himself. This expectancy, he stated, depends upon those available to the individual for comparison, or, the existing "frame of reference". Coopersmith (1959) also acknowledged the importance of the personal frame of referenoe. He made the assumption that the degree of self-esteem is directly related to the extent to which successes approach aspirations within the established group norms and values (frames of reference) of the individual.

The relevance of the group, or culture, important to the individual in establishment of his self-esteem has been acknowledged by many (Coopersmith, 1959; Levita, 1965; Felker, 1974; Rosenberg, 1965; Murphy, 1947). Cooley (1902), Mead (1934), James (1890) and others have agreed that the individual's self-esteem is largely determined by what others think of him. Murphy (1947) agreed by stating that the tendency to value or devalue the self is correlated with the approval of significant others. Mischel (1977) added to this by stating that self-esteem is importantly dependent on the consistency of the social environment. He said,

> "As the messages received from others that regulate one's self-worth are varied, one's concepts of self (along with valuational associations) may change. Self-esteem may then be regarded as not an enduring sub-stratum of experience, but as inextricably linked to the social context, and freely dependent on it for strength." (p.146)

In the same vein, Levita (1965) referred to self-esteem as being the end result of self-evaluation. To him, as to others, this construct occupies a special place amongst the components of self. He pointed out that "self-esteem depends on the nature of the inner image against which we measure our own self" (p.81).

Similarly Wylie (1961) indicated that self-esteem refers to the degree of congruence between self and ideal self.

Berger (1968) suggested that self-esteem is not a unidimensional variable, but is composed instead of a number of relatively independent dimensions which are all encompassed within the larger domain of self-concept. This is in agreement with Smith's (1960) view that self-esteem is one necessary component of self-concept.

This component of self-esteem, according to Felker (1974), can be either a product or a process. The former refers to self-esteem as a high regard or favourable opinion; the latter refers to the act of regarding with respect or admiration. It seems that Felker (1974) views self-esteem in an essentially positive manner, although it can most certainly have negative connotations as well. He summarized his views by stating that "self-esteem is an individual's general evaluation of himself which functions like an umbrella over all of his everyday behaviours" (p.23).

To conclude, self-esteem, it appears, is the result of the development of a sense of feeling of belonging (Erikson, 1963), competence (Diggory, 1966), and worth (Jersild, 1963). Presumably it can be both positive and negative, and is significantly related to the individual's basic behaviour or style of adapting to the environment.

2. Positive and Negative Self-esteem

Individuals who differ in self-esteem behave in markedly different fashions (Coopersmith, 1959). The behavioural differences between persons with high (positive) and low (negative) self-esteem have frequently been considered (Coopersmith, 1959; Wylie, 1961; Snygg & Combs, 1949; Mischel, 1977; Hamachek, 1971).

Rosenberg (1965) stated that positive self-esteem implies respect of the self, whereas negative self-esteem suggests self-dissatisfaction, self-rejection and self-contempt. He pointed out that persons with low self-esteem are inordinately sensitive to any evidence which testifies to their worthlessness. They are, therefore, highly vulnerable to such techniques as criticizing, scolding, or blaming.

Wylie (1961) indicated that positive self-esteem means being proud of oneself, or evaluating oneself highly as opposed to being dissatisfied with oneself.

Cohen (1957) noted that people with high self-esteem tend to protect themselves from negative self-evaluation. For example, they would be able to evaluate an objective failure as a small failure, and an objective success as a large success. The opposite is true of individuals with low self-esteem.

Coopersmith (1959) listed a number of characteristics of individuals possessing high self-esteem including effectiveness, assertiveness, pride, self-love, independence, popularity, and confidence, and low self-esteem including insecurity, inferiority, timidity, self-hatred, submissiveness, anxiety, depression, quietness, lacking in confidence and frequently being invisible members of a group.

Self-esteem, then, may be viewed as a dimension of self-concept; it is the evaluation, positive or negative, that an individual makes of himself. It is customarily associated with specific types of behaviours exhibited by the individual.

3. Measuring Self-esteem

Instruments for measuring self-esteem have been subject to considerable criticism, most often centering around lack of standardization and validation of scales (Boersma & Chapman, 1978).

Another common criticism is related to the difficulty involved with measuring psychological traits with precision. Kelly (1967) pointed out that the behaviour of the human organism is influenced by many variables in addition to the one

which the test is designed to measure. He stated that "moment-to-moment, or day-by-day fluctuations in attention, motivation, state of health, fatigue, distraction, and emotional status all affect test results" (p.43).

Labenne & Greene (1969), Quandt (1972) and Wylie (1961) seriously questioned the validity of the self-report, the commonly used instrument for assessment of self-esteem.

Labenne & Greene went on to note that,

> "No one has the continuity of exposure and so continuous an opportunity to observe and evaluate his inner life and thought as the person himself." (p.11)

Rogers (1951) supported this view in his belief that an individual report from man's "internal frame of reference" provides the most accurate point from which to understand his behaviour. Snygg & Combs (1949) reported that although there may be a discrepancy between what an individual believes about his worth (self-esteem) and what he says (self-report), what he says will surely be significantly affected by what he is. Kelly (1967) noted that human judgement is the most widely used assessment technique.

Thus, although the direct technique or self-report does have disadvantages, it yields evidence that can be obtained in no other way (Labenne & Greene, 1969). The assumption made by users of this technique is that self-esteem is conscious and that a person is able and willing to reveal it.

Another way to measure self-esteem is to make inferences about it from observations of behaviour. Yamamoto (1972) noted that since self-esteem is a concept and not a concrete entity, an appraisal of it can be made only by observing the behaviour that allows insight into the system determining the behaviour.

The assumption being made by Yamamoto (1972) is that if behaviour is a function of perception it should be possible to infer the nature of the perceptions that produced the behaviour. It is also noted, however, that skill and sensitivity on the part of the observer is mandatory. Kelly (1967) pointed out that discrepancies in observations tend to cancel each other out (p.60). Over time other researchers have found considerable consistency between observers' ratings of children's behaviours (Coopersmith, 1959; Piers, 1964; Battle, 1976). In general, the assumption being made is that every individual reveals his true self not only by what he does, but by how he does it.

It is this assumption together with the assumptions that self-esteem is conscious and can be inferred from behaviour, on which Battle (1976) based his self-report questionnaires and teachers' behaviour rating forms used in this study. He attempted to measure an individual's perception of self and subsequently his subjective feelings. Using his scales Battle compared the self-esteem of academically successful and unsuccessful (regular and special class) students, with a resulting statistically significant correlation of .70 between self-esteem and perception of ability. He also examined the relationship between depression and self-esteem (1977) finding a total group correlation of .55, which he interpreted as suggesting that depression is associated with low self-esteem. In a further study (1978) Battle found that academically successful students scored significantly higher than their non-successful peers on an Esteem Inventory. In addition, he computed and compared correlations between teachers' ratings of behaviours, and subjective, student-rated self-esteems.

Correlations were significant for the total group ($r = .36$), suggesting that his two scales were, in fact, measuring similar traits.

4. Generalizations about Self-esteem from the Relevant Literature

Several generalizations about self-esteem can be summarized drawing from the literature.

1. Many theorists assign the self-concept a central place in their personality theories, and suggest that an individual's self-esteem is a major factor in influencing behaviour (Maslow, 1968; Freud, 1905; Cattell, 1950).
2. The self-concept is a composite representation of the self, of which self-esteem is one component (Smith, 1960; Battle, 1976).
3. Definitions of self-esteem are many and varied but appear to have in common the sense of adequacy or evaluation that an individual has of himself (Battle, 1976; Coopersmith, 1959).
4. Self-esteem is essentially a social product arising out of experiences with people; man perceives and defines himself as he believes others perceive and define him (Mischel, 1977; Rogers, 1951; Mead, 1934; Cooley, 1902; Maslow, 1954).
5. Many researchers and writers in the field of education have associated poor school achievement and lower intelligence with poor or negative self-esteem (Purkey, 1970; Rosenberg, 1965; Brown et al, 1953; Jersild, 1951; Lecky, 1945).

6. Observable behaviour characteristics have been associated with both positive and negative self-esteem (Battle, 1976; Coopersmith, 1959).
7. Although the instruments for measuring self-esteem have been criticized, self-reports combined with observations by people who know the individual give the currently available most accurate picture of self-esteem (Labenne & Greene, 1969; Coopersmith, 1959; Battle, 1976).
8. Many studies of self-concept and self-esteem have been done with adults; a number have been done with secondary school students; only a few have been attempted at the elementary level. In particular there appears to be a dearth of research at the primary and special education (Pollock, 1972).

Intelligence

1. Historical Outline

Attempts to define, examine and measure intelligence have passed through several stages, as can be noted from Table 2. It can be observed that the investigation of intelligence has developed from the original works of early experimental psychologists. Today the primary focus is on mental processes as measured by intelligence tests. Although a number of these intelligence tests have become widely accepted and used, actual definitions of intelligence - the entity they propose to measure - have not.

HISTORICAL OUTLINE OF INTELLIGENCE - TABLE 2

DATE	THEORIST	MAIN POINT OF CONTRIBUTION	REFERENCE
1883	Gatton	- attempted to use the measurement of sensory processes to estimate intelligence.	Eysenck, 1967
1889	Oehrn	- experimented with mental correlations between perception, memory, motor functions, and associations.	Sattler, 1974
1890	McKean & Cattell	- employed tests of muscular strength, speed of movement, sensitivity to pain, to estimate intelligence.	Eysenck, 1967
1893	Gilbert	- studied how children responded to various types of tests; compared their results to their "general ability".	Sattler, 1974
1895	Binet & Henri	- proposed ten tests aimed at studying the relations that exist between various physical processes.	Spearman, 1904
1897	Binet, Henri & Simon	- were developing methods for examining a variety of mental functions.	Sattler, 1974
1927	Spearman	- proposed a factor analytic approach to intelligence.	Sattler, 1974
1927	Thorndike	- suggested that intelligence was composed of many separate elements or abilities, which group together to form clusters.	Sattler, 1974
1938	Thurston	- proposed a multidimensional theory of intelligence with seven group factors, or "Primary Mental Abilities", and a second-order factor which may be related to "g".	Sattler, 1974
1950	Vernon	- developed a hierarchical theory of intelligence with "g" being the highest level.	Sattler, 1974

DATE	THEORIST	MAIN POINT OF CONTRIBUTION	REFERENCE
1963	Cattell	- proposed his fluid (basic inherent capacity) and crystallized (result of interaction with environment) intelligence.	Brody & Brody, 1974
1967	Guilford	- developed the complex three-dimensional "Structure of Intellect" model of intelligence.	Brody & Brody, 1974

2. Views of Intelligence

Definitions of intelligence remain many and varied. The following appear to be the most widely accepted.

According to Weschler (1974) intelligence is

> ". . . the overall capacity for an individual to understand and cope with the world around him . . . a multifaceted and multi-dimensional entity rather than an independent, uniquely defined trait." (p.5)

Binet (Binet & Simon, 1905) defined intelligence as a collection of faculties; judgement, practical sense, initiative, and the ability to adapt to the environment.

Piaget (Elkind, 1969) also defined intelligence as the process of adapting.

For the purposes of this study, however, intelligence is what intelligence tests measure (Sattler, 1974). It is not a visible ability (such as manual dexterity or verbal fluency), but rather, an entity inferred from the way in which an individual behaves and interacts with his environment.

Thus intelligence is inferred from behaviour and consequent scores on intelligence tests. It is this operational definition that will be used in the present study.

Furthermore, examination of scores on intelligence tests reveals that individuals perform intellectually along a continuum of behaviour and according to a classification system. This system assigns each individual to a "level" according to his "I.Q." (intelligence quotient; a numerical expression of measured intelligence whose average is preset at 100). Accordingly, some individuals score below the norm

and are said to possess "lower" or "less" ability relative to the norm (e.g. the Educable Mentally Handicapped).

3. Educable Mentally Handicapped

Mental handicap, or mental deficiency, is not a disease. It is, rather, a term applied to a condition of sub-normal mental development, present at birth, and characterized primarily by limited intelligence (Mayer-Gross, Slater, & Roth, 1954). These individuals have been further classified according to the severity of the defect. It is with the highest level, or "low-grade" handicapped (EMH) that this study is concerned.

According to the Alberta Special Education Study (1977), EMH students are those in the I.Q. range of 50-80, whose non-academic objectives (e.g. self-esteem) could be achieved in either segregated or non-segregated classrooms.

Referring back to the statement previously made indicating that the operational definition of intelligence would be utilized for this study, the Weschler and Binet classifications are included (see Appendix D).

According to Weschler's definition educable mentally handicapped students are "borderline" or "mentally deficient" and, according to Binet's, are "borderline defective" or "mental defective".

One further definition of an educable mental handicap is worthy of consideration. McCandless (1961 defined EMH as a

> ". . . group of simple mental defectives . . . neurologically and physically normal . . . below about IQ - 70 in intelligence tests." (p.225)

Although this definition is almost twenty years old, it is interesting to note that in his 1977 book it remains primarily unchanged, with the prime difference being substitution of "mild degree of retardation" for "simple mental defectives" (McCandless and Trotter, 1977; p.389). The important point to keep in focus is that these children are typically "neurologically and physically normal." In addition, McCandless & Trotter noted that "these children generally get along well with adults, and are usually no longer considered handicapped when they leave school" (McCandless & Trotter; p.389).

However, they also pointed out that from their ranks come a disproportionate number of relief, charity, delinquent, criminal and promiscuous persons. On the other hand, the remainder seem to be self-supporting and law-abiding. It is the hypothesis of this author that the difference lies, at least in part, with the self-esteem of the two groups.

As a whole, EMH persons comprise about two percent of the United States population (McCandless & Trotter, 1977). Although Canadian statistics were unavailable, it can be speculated, due to the cultural similarity of the two populations, that a similar percentage exists here as well. In sum, of all children considered to be mentally handicapped, eighty-five percent are mildly handicapped, or educable mentally handicapped (Sattler, 1974).

The influence of this handicap on self-esteem has been studied resulting in divergent and conflicting findings (Iano, 1972; McGarvie, 1970; Monroe, 1975; Coopersmith, 1959; Laurence & Winchel, 1973; Thurston, 1959; Mayer, 1966; Battle, 1979).

It appears that although intelligence scores (and thus inferred intelligence) have been shown to have considerable predictive power for school achievement, prediction of social success and self-satisfaction (self-esteem) is more difficult (Sattler, 1974). In other words, labelling children as EMH gives no information about their self-esteem. As a result, when regarding the whole child it becomes necessary to consider other variables in addition to intelligence. Attitudes (student toward teacher as well as teacher toward student) comprise an additional, salient variable.

Attitudes

Gordon Allport (1935) stated that "the concept of the attitude is probably the most distinctive and indispensible concept in contemporary social psychology" (Kelman, 1974). Since that time, attitudes and their consequent behaviours have been under constant investigation. Psychology as a whole assumes that attitudes have an important effect on social behaviour (Wicker, 1969). Field theorists consider attitudinal reactions to be the most important aspects of learning (Biehler, 1971). Ajzen & Fishbein (1977) stated that an attitude has a consistently strong relationship to behaviour when directed at the same target. It would seem, then, that an attitude represents a predisposition to act toward the attitude object in a particular way. If the teacher is the attitude object, then the students' attitudes toward the teacher are of prime importance.

1. Students' Attitudes Toward Teachers

Eagly (1978) pointed out that an attitude develops out of a person's interaction with another person in a particular motivated, cognitive context. If the latter person's position is that of a significant other, e.g. the teacher, the importance of the attitude becomes greater.

The attitude of a student toward his teacher (e.g. does he like or dislike the teacher?) may be a prime determinant of how much he will attend to, and consequently learn from, the teacher. Similarly it may be a determinant of how much he identifies with the teacher (Biehler, 1971). The importance of this identification with, and imitation of, the teacher must not be underestimated in a study of self-esteem. Teachers who have the greatest impact on the self-esteem of their students are likely to be those most liked by their students (Biehler, 1971). In 1961 McCandless stated that after about age nine, students were more likely to identify with teachers than with parents. He continued to maintain this premise in 1977, stressing the importance of the influence of teachers during the early and middle childhood years. Although Lefrancois (1980) stressed the importance of the influence of peers for identification purposes, he also emphasized the significance of teachers as models.

The student will more than likely identify with someone he likes. The teacher who is liked and respected will instill the ability to like and respect the self. There is a circularity to this situation; the student likes the teacher and from this he learns to like himself; the more he likes himself, the more open he is to liking the teacher and others.

McCandless (1961) alleged that this Rogerian notion that people who are self-accepting are also accepting of others has frequently been tested and supported. It follows, then, that the self-rejecting person also rejects others, and is likely to be rejected by them in return. A majority of studies have indicated a significant relationship between acceptance of self and others (Berger, 1951; Phillips, 1951; McIntyre, 1952; Crandall & Bellagi, 1954; Omwake, 1954; Fey, 1955; Levanway, 1955).

Beck (1964) in his doctoral dissertation acknowledged the importance of students' attitudes toward their teachers. He used a factor analytic approach to determine dimensions of teacher merit. His resulting instrument, the About My Teacher questionnaire, provides an analysis of the way in which students feel about their teachers, or, in other words, their attitudes toward their teachers. Beck noted that students were competent judges in assessing their feelings toward their teachers. These resulting feelings, or attitudes, appear to be instrumental in their own self-esteem development and enhancement.

2. Teachers' Attitudes Toward Students

Of equal importance are the teachers' attitudes toward their students, for not only will these attitudes affect their perceptions, but also their expectations, of the students.

Several controversial investigations have demonstrated that children can be affected by the expectations or attitudes held of them by teachers (Rosenthal, 1971). One person's expectations of another's behaviour may act like a self-fulfilling prophecy. In other words, it is possible that when teachers rate the behaviour of their students, they are, in

fact, establishing contingencies for the behaviours they "see" in existence (Entwisle & Webster, 1972). To illustrate, in many studies teachers are given false information about students' test scores, and then students subsequently perform in accordance with the false data. Even though, as Lefrancois (1980) pointed out, such studies have been criticized extensively, the fact remains that "the expectations that teachers have for their students may dramatically affect the social and intellectual development of the students" (Lefrancois, 1980, p.374).

Therefore, one might postulate that if a teacher rates the self-esteem of a student to be low (inferred from the student's behaviour), the student's self-esteem will, in fact, tend to be low. The central dynamic of this sort of explanation is the circularity of the process involved: raising the teacher's expectation for a given student causes the teacher to treat that student differently - to provide him with self-esteem enhancement situations. This, in turn, causes the student to raise his own expectations of self, to view his self-esteem more positively, and thus to behave in a different manner. Consequently explanations or descriptions of a specific characteristic or trait (in this case, self-esteem) tend to be self-maintaining (Entwisle & Webster, 1972). In other words, a self-fulfilling prophecy is established. Many other theorists have supported this premise (Davidson & Lang, 1960; Perkins, 1958; Snygg & Combs, 1949; Mischel, 1977; Yamamoto, 1972; Wylie, 1961; Coopersmith, 1959; Borg, 1966).

Integration

Self-concept theory, and with it the necessary component of self-esteem, can be traced back to Descartes in the seventeenth century. From there its development has been influenced by the thinking of psychoanalytic, humanistic and cognitive theorists, the humanists providing the most significant contributions.

Self-esteem is a dimension of self-concept; it is the evaluation which an individual makes and customarily maintains with regard to himself. Research suggests that specific behavioural characteristics are manifestations of positive or negative self-esteem. These observed behaviours, together with an individual's self-report, can give a fairly accurate picture of the self-esteem of the individual.

However, the nature of these observations of behaviour, or the attitude of the observer, has been shown to have a significant effect on the behaviour, in accordance with the principle of the self-fulfilling prophecy. Similarly, the attitude of the person being observed, toward the observer, is of equal importance for, as has been previously demonstrated, individuals imitate, identify with, and generally appear to behave more positively in the presence of persons they like. Thus the complex interrelationship between attitude toward teacher and teacher observations, expectations, and ratings of behaviour is suggested.

Although attitudes are elusive and difficult to study, it is apparent that they do influence behaviour. This premise

does not appear to have been examined to any great extent with educable mentally handicapped children. However, in view of the lower teacher/pupil ratio in special classrooms, it can be speculated that this attitude/behaviour interaction may be even more important here than in regular classroom settings. Biehler (1971) stated that educable mentally handicapped students often feel antagonistic toward their teachers. If this is the case, what is the effect of this situation on the students' self-esteem?

Similarly, how does the mental handicap (i.e. low intelligence according to scores on intelligence tests) affect the self-esteem of these children with I.Q. scores of 80 or less? Given the discrepancies between definitions of intelligence, plus the weaknesses of intelligence tests and consequent invalidity of intelligence scores, it must still be acknowledged that EMH students are in need of special help for which they have been segregated. The assumption has been that these students suffer also from lower self-esteem (Iano, 1972). Alternatives to be considered are as follows. Does a relationship exist between intelligence and self-esteem for those with lower intelligence? Does the mental handicap of these children cause them to behave somehow differently so that teachers "infer" lower self-esteem that may not actually exist? Is it the students' attitudes toward their teachers that cause specific behaviours, rated positively or negatively by teachers, from which self-esteem is inferred and expectations for future behaviours are established? How does the mentally handicapped child view himself in the entire situation?

The key to understanding the whole child - and consequently his self-esteem - is to examine his behaviour, draw inferences, and make comparisons with the child's reported view of self. The data involved in this procedure include feelings, attitudes, beliefs, values and capabilities or intelligence. Thus, an investigation of the relationship between the self-esteem, intelligence, attitudes and behaviour of the educable mentally retarded child should expand understanding of these children. In view of this premise, the following research questions and consequent hypotheses have been formulated.

Research Questions and Hypotheses

Research Question 1

Does a relationship exist between educable mentally handicapped students' self-rated self-esteem as measured by the Canadian Self-esteem Inventory for Children (Battle, 1976) and ratings made by their teachers as measured by the Teachers' Behaviour Rating Form (Battle, 1976)? Battle found a low, positive correlation ($r = .36$) between teachers' ratings and students' self-reports using these instruments, with regular class students age 9 - 12. These findings, however, have not been replicated with EMH students. A subsidiary question, therefore, is, whether these instruments can be administered in opportunity rooms to assess the self-esteem of EMH students?

Hypothesis 1[1]: There is no significant correlation between student-rated self-esteem and teacher-rated student self-esteem inferred from students' behaviour, as rated by the Teacher Behaviour Rating Form.

[1] Hypotheses are stated in null form.

Research Question 2

Does a relationship exist between educable mentally handicapped students' intellectual levels and their observable classroom behaviours? Do the more intelligent children within the EMH group (Group 2 students) display more negative behaviours?

Hypothesis 2a: There is no significant correlation between teacher-rated student behaviours, as measured by the Teacher Behaviour Rating Form, and students' intelligence scores.

Hypothesis 2b: Group 2 (high intelligence) students do not exhibit more negative behaviours, as measured by the Teacher Behaviour Rating Form, than Group 1 (low intelligence) students.

Research Question 3

Does a relationship exist between the intellectual levels of EMH students and their self-rated self-esteem? For example, does negative, or lower, self-esteem correlate with higher intelligence scores such that Group 2 exhibits lower self-esteem, as is suggested by McGarvie (1969), Guthrie (1966), Curtis (1971) and others, or with lower intelligence scores such that Group 1 exhibits lower self-esteem as is suggested by Laurence & Winchel (1973), Thursten (1959), Bennett (1964) and others?

Hypothesis 3a: There is no significant correlation between student-rated self-esteem and students' intelligence scores.

Hypothesis 3b: Group 2 (high intelligence within EMH group) students do not have lower, self-rated self-esteem than Group 1 (low intelligence) students.

Research Question 4

Does a relationship exist between students' attitudes towards, or feelings of like or dislike for their teachers,

and students' self-rated self-esteem?

> Hypothesis 4: There is no significant correlation between students' attitudes toward their teachers and students' self-rated self-esteem.

Research Question 5

Does a relationship exist between students' attitudes toward their teachers and teacher-rated students' behaviours? Research indicates that persons behave more positively in the presence of individuals whom they like and respect (Biehler, 1971), but these attitudes do not appear to have been examined in the EMH student-teacher situation.

> Hypothesis 5: There is no significant correlation between teacher-rated students' behaviours, as measured by the Teacher Behaviour Rating Form, and students' attitudes toward their teachers.

CHAPTER III

THE RESEARCH DESIGN

This chapter delineates the study, including instruments employed, description of (and rationale for) the sample, collection and analysis of data, and assumptions and limitations of the study.

Description of the Instruments

1. The Canadian Self-esteem Inventory for Children - Form A (see Appendix A). This fifty item self-report was designed by Battle (1976) to measure a child's subjective perception of self. The items in the scale are representative of four areas: self, peers, parents, and school, which together give a measure of total or general self-esteem. The subject checks each item either "yes" or "no". The self-esteem score is the total number of items checked which indicate high self-esteem. The inventory can be administered in a group or individually.

Reliability was established for this inventory using test-retest procedures with 198 boys and girls enrolled in Grades 3 through 6 (Battle, 1976). The test-retest correlations for all subjects ranged from .81 to .89 (average r = .84).

Factor analysis further indicated that the items in the scale possessed acceptable internal consistency (Battle, 1976). Battle also considered the problem of validity when designing this instrument. An attempt was made to build content validity into the scale by

(i) developing a construct definition of self-esteem,

> ". . . that which is measured by the Canadian Self-esteem Inventory and refers to the perception one has of his own worth".

and

(ii) writing items intended to cover all areas of the construct (Battle, 1976, p.16).

A comparative study (Battle, 1976) of this inventory and Coopersmith's (1967) Self-esteem Inventory (Form A) revealed significant correlations between the two instruments for all grade levels. ($r = .72$ to $.84$)

On the basis of the above it was assumed that the Canadian Self-esteem Inventory for Children possessed sufficient reliability and validity.

2. Teacher Behaviour Rating Form (see Appendix B)

This ten item, teacher-rated scale was designed by Battle (1976) to measure student behaviours associated with success, assurance and self-confidence. The items include reactions to criticisms and failure. Response alternatives range from always to never (e.g. Does this child appear to be anxious? always - 1; usually - 2; sometimes - 3; seldom - 4; never - 5) To minimize the response biases the always to never response continuum was reversed on some items, i.e. on some items always is equal to 5 and never is equal to 1, while the reverse was true on other items.

The maximum score for each of the ten items is 5, and the range is 1 to 5. The inventory is completed by the teacher for each student in the sample.

Validity was established by comparing students' self-reports and teachers' evaluations, using forty-six students in grades 4 to 6. These studies conducted by Battle (1976) indicated that a significant correlation existed between

teachers' evaluations and students' self-reports ($r = .36$ for total sample). Thus the evidence that students' reports and teachers' evaluations of students tend to agree, as supported by Pipitone (1975), Greiger & Richards (1976), Harris (1977), Parker (1966), DeLorenzo (1969), Thomas (1969) and others, appears to hold true for this instrument.

No attempt was made to establish reliability of this instrument. This limitation must be considered when viewing the findings.

On the basis of the above data, the assumption was made that the Teacher Behaviour Rating Form possessed adequate validity.

3. About My Teacher - Affective Domain (Appendix C)

This 20 item, student-rated questionnaire was designed by Beck (1964) to measure the construct "affective merit", or the teachers' abilities to promote the students' emotional, and social security in the student-teacher relationship. Specifically Beck stated that these abilities are:

> ". . . those characteristics of a teacher that cause him to be perceived as effective in helping pupils to satisfy social and emotional needs in the classroom - especially through the teacher providing a warm and supportive relationship". (p.17)

It has been assumed that these characteristics, when rated by students, would reflect students' attitudes toward their teachers (Beck).

Validity was established by administering the instrument (Beck, 1964) to a sample of 2,108 sixth grade pupils in 75 classes in schools of the Peninsula Study Council, U.S.A.

Class means of pupil responses to each item were extracted, inter-correlated and factor analyzed through the principle components method with rotation by Kaiser's vorimax procedure. Professionally qualified judges then rated each question as to what it was actually measuring.

It was concluded that specific items showing teachers to be friendly, warm and supportive, constituted the Affective Merit of teachers. This factor emerged with the greatest strength. The characteristics found to have the highest loadings on affective merit involved being polite, modest, likeable, sympathetic toward students, respectful of students, sensitive to emotional aspects of students, tolerant and having a good sense of humour. In general, the items chosen were judged in terms of teacher approachability, irritability and personal popularity.

Reliability was established (Beck, 1964) by submitting the Affective Merit factor to a second, independent factor analysis and further rating by judges. Readministration of the questionnaire provided scores for reliability checks.

On the basis of the above the "About My Teacher" instrument is considered to be an efficient and defensible tool for use in the study of pupils' perceptions of their teachers at the elementary level.

Description of the Sample

Pupils in the sample attended Junior Opportunity Classrooms within the Edmonton Public School System. Eleven classes were chosen to represent the City in general. All

pupils had been placed in special classes because they were unable to cope with the academic requirements of "regular" classes, and had been intellectually assessed as being Educable Mentally Handicapped, that is, having I.Q. scores between 50 and 80. It was found, however, that 8 students actually had I.Q. scores between 80 and 95, but due to learning and/or behavioural difficulties were still placed in the special settings, and were, therefore, considered by Edmonton Public Schoolboard student placement team to be EMH. These students were included in the sample. The mean I.Q. of the sample was 71.8. Students ranged in age from 9 to 13 years. The total number of pupils in the sample was 70 and the total number of teachers was 11.

This particular age group of EMH students was chosen as representatives of the EMH student population for whom research information pertaining to self-esteem seemed to be lacking.

It was discovered that none of the students participating in the study were currently involved in affective education classes of any kind. In other words, no direct teaching of self-esteem enhancement was taking place at the time of the study.

For further analyses the students were separated into two groups according to their intelligence score. Group 1 consisted of those students in the lower I.Q. range (50 - 75). Group 2 consisted of those students in the higher I.Q. range (76-80). In addition, the 8 students with I.Q. scores between 80 and 95 were included in Group 2. In other words, the Group 2 children were those students (I.Q. 76-95) who more

closely resembled their "normal" peers in learning potentials, as assessed by the Weschler Intelligence Scale for Children (WISC), or the Stanford Binet Intelligence Scale (SB).

All participating raters (teachers) were certified teachers with more than 3 years' experience in a special education situation. Permission for participation in research had been obtained for all students prior to placement in the special classrooms.

Collection of Data

Data collection began with administration of the Canadian Self-esteem Inventory for Children. The teacher was asked to leave the room and the examiner attempted to create a non-threatening atmosphere before beginning. It was stressed that this was not a "test" and that either a "yes" or a "no" answer could be correct for each question. It had been ensured, by pre-training and testing, that students could discriminate between "yes" and "no", and were able to follow the columns correctly. Markers were used to facilitate marking in the correct box. To obviate the possibility of any self-esteem scores being dependent on reading ability the examiner read aloud the 50 items which comprise the inventory, to one classroom (7 - 10 students) at a time. Children were encouraged to ask questions and discuss freely any statements unclear to them. In some cases (e.g. lower intelligence students) the scale was administered on a one-to-one basis. This was done only to assure that responses were marked in correct places, and that students were "attending" to the test.

In an attempt to maintain consistency of the assessment, no additional encouragement was given to these students than was given to their peers.

Administration of this instrument was followed by a ten minute break after which the About My Teacher inventory was administered. Similar procedures were followed as before. Students were assured that there was no "correct" response and that their answers would remain confidential. Again, some questionnaires were administered on a one-to-one basis.

During the time when the two preceding questionnaires were being administered to the class, the teacher was rating each student on the Teacher Behaviour Rating Form.

Analysis of Data

A correlational analysis was used to examine the relationships between the variables of self-esteem, intelligence, attitudes and student behaviours. The DEST 02 computer program provided correlation coefficients for the variables and their respective significance.

In addition, a t-test was used to find significance of differences of means between Group 1 (low I.Q.) and Group 2 (high I.Q.) for specific variables.

The results of the statistical analysis are presented in Chapter V.

Assumptions

The following nine assumptions were considered to be relevant in regard to the present investigation.

1. That self-esteem of EMH students is an important variable in their learning environment which has not, to date, been given due consideration either in the literature or in the classroom.
2. That subjects' responses were based on actual self-esteem, willingness to co-operate, and adequate language competency.
3. That subjects were capable of understanding and reporting life experiences and did not deliberately conceal feelings.
4. That teachers involved were all able, on the basis of their shared cultural background, common language, and experience in dealing with children, to infer psychological meaning from the behaviour of their students.
5. That judgements made on the basis of a small sample of behaviour will agree with judgements made by observers based on a larger sample of behaviour.
6. That adequate validity and reliability for measuring self-esteem, overt behaviour, and attitudes toward teachers are provided by the Canadian Self-esteem Inventory, Teachers' Behaviour Rating Form, and the About My Teacher Form.
7. That the sampling procedure was adequate to provide for valid findings.
8. That the I.Q. scores obtained from the cumulative records were reliable and valid indicators of intellectual capacity.
9. That although it is not possible to make casual statements from correlational analysis, positive correlations are a necessary preliminary step in establishing causation.

CHAPTER IV

DATA ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

Chapter IV comprises a restatement of the hypotheses delineated in Chapter II, and a presentation of the related findings and conclusions. Hypotheses 1, 2a, 3a, 4 and 5 were tested by calculating Pearson product-moment correlation coefficients. Hypotheses 2b and 3b were tested using t-tests.

Hypotheses, Findings, Conclusions

Hypothesis 1: There is no significant correlation between student-rated self-esteem and teacher-rated self-esteem as inferred from student behaviour, as rated by the Teacher Behaviour Rating Form.

Findings

The results of the correlational analysis, as shown in Table 3, indicated the existence of a positive and statistically significant relationship between students' self-rated self-esteem and teachers' ratings of students' behaviours.

Conclusion

On the basis of this statistical analysis, Hypothesis 1 was rejected. This correlation coefficient was larger than the correlation of .36 found by Battle (1976) using the same instruments. The findings of the present study were consistent with those of Coopersmith (1959), Borg (1966), and Parker (1966) in their studies with "normal" children.

TABLE 3

Relationship between I.Q., Self-esteem (SE), Teacher-rated behaviour (TRB) and Attitude toward Teacher (A)

	I.Q.	S.E.	T.R.B.	A.
I.A.	1.000			
S.E.	-0.119	1.000		
T.R.B.	-0.258*	0.521**	1.000	
A.	0.053	0.355**	-0.049	1.000

Probabilities of t

	1	2	3	4
1	0.0			
2	0.326	0.0		
3	0.031*	0.000**	0.0	
4	0.664	0.003**	0.687	0.0

Degrees of Freedom = 68

* $P < .05$ ** $P < .01$

Hypothesis 2:

2a: There is no significant correlation between teacher-rated student behaviours, as measured by the Teacher Behaviour Rating Form, and students' I.Q. scores.

Findings

T he results of the correlational analysis, as shown in Table 3, indicated the existence of a negative and significant relationship between I.Q. and teacher-rated behaviours.

Conclusion

On the basis of the statistical analysis, Hypotheses 2a was rejected. Review of the relevant literature did not reveal other studies which investigated this relationship between intelligence and behaviour.

2b: Group 2 (high I.Q. students) do not exhibit more negative behaviours, as measured by the Teacher Behaviour Rating Form, than Group 1 (low I.Q. students).

Findings

The results of the t-test, as shown in Table 4, indicated that Group 2 students did exhibit more negative behaviours as rated by their teachers.

Conclusion

On the basis of the statistical analysis, Hypothesis 2b was rejected. As with Hypothesis 2a, a review of the literature failed to reveal research on this relationship between high intelligence within the Educable Mentally Handicapped group, and negative, teacher-rated behaviours.

Hypothesis 3:

3a: There is no significant correlation between self-rated self-esteem and EMH students' I.Q. scores.

Findings

The results of the correlational analysis, as shown in Table 3, did not reach statistical significance, suggesting little relationship between self-esteem and I.Q. scores of EMH students as a total group.

Conclusion

On the basis of the statistical analysis, Hypothesis 3a was not rejected. It is of interest to note that this finding is inconsistent with Coopersmith (1959) who found a statistically significant correlation between self-esteem and I.Q. scores ($r = .28$). His studies, however, also indicated a "low" correlation, with a sample of normal students.

3b: Group 2 (high I.Q. within EMH group) students do not have lower, self-rated self-esteem than Group 1 (low I.Q. within EMH group) students.

Findings

The results of the t-test, as shown in Table 4, indicated that Group 2 students did, in fact, exhibit lower self-esteem than Group 1 students.

Conclusion

On the basis of the statistical analysis, Hypothesis 3b was rejected. This is consistent with findings of Laurence & Winchel (1973), Thursten (1959), Bennett (1964), and Mayer (1966). It is inconsistent with findings of Iano (1977).

TABLE 4

T-Test: Differences between means of Group 1 and Group 2 for Self-esteem and Behaviour

Variable	Means		SD		DF	T	Probability
	GR.1	GR.2	GR.1	GR.2			2-tail
Self-esteem	35.4545	30.8846	7.3341	5.7781	68.0	2.7154	0.00838**
Teacher-rated Behaviour	36.4773	31.2308	7.4662	6.2181	68.0	3.0157	0.00360**

* $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$

Hypothesis 4: There is no significant correlation between students' attitudes toward their teachers and students' self-rated self-esteem.

Findings

The results of the correlational analysis, as shown in Table 3, indicated the existence of a positive and significant although low correlation between attitudes toward teachers and students' self-esteem.

Conclusion

On the basis of the statistical analysis, Hypothesis 4 was rejected. Although the correlation was low, due to the multivariate nature of behaviour, of which attitude is but one component, it is believed by this author to be of importance in that every variable which accounts for any variance in behaviour is worthy of consideration.

Although a review of the literature did not reveal any correlational studies of attitudes toward teachers and student self-esteem, a number of researchers have postulated the possibility of such a relationship (Eagly, 1978; Biehler, 1971; Ajzen & Fishbein, 1977; Beck, 1964).

Hypothesis 5: There is no significant correlation between students' teacher-rated behaviours, as measured by the Teacher Behaviour Rating Form, and students' attitudes toward their teachers.

Findings

The results of the correlational analysis, as shown in Table 3, did not reach statistical significance.

Conclusion

On the basis of the statistical analysis, Hypothesis 5

was not rejected. As with Hypothesis 4, the literature review did not reveal any additional correlational studies of attitudes toward teachers and student behaviours. However, other researchers have suggested the possibility of a relationship between attitudes toward teachers and student behaviours. The findings of this study, therefore, would seem to be contrary to the thinking of a number of researchers in the area (McCandless, 1961; McCandless & Trotter, 1977; Rosenthal, 1971; Entwisle & Webster, 1972).

Summary

The presentation and analysis of the research data revealed the following findings.

There were statistically significant, positive correlations between student-rated self-esteem and teacher-rated student behaviours, and between student-rated self-esteem and attitude toward teachers.

A statistically significant, negative correlation was found between EMH students' I.Q. scores and teacher-rated student behaviours. In other words, as the I.Q. scores of the EMH students increased, teachers tended to rate the students' behaviours more negatively. In addition, when students were grouped according to I.Q. (Group 1, I.Q. 50 - 75; Group 2, I.Q. 76 - 95), Group 2 students were found to exhibit, on the average, significantly behaviours rated more negatively by their teachers.

No significant correlation was found between I.Q. and self-rated self-esteem of EMH students as a whole. However, when students were grouped according to I.Q. as previously indicated, Group 2 students did exhibit significantly lower self-esteem than Group 1 students.

No significant correlation was found between students' teacher-rated behaviours and students' attitudes toward their teachers.

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

This chapter presents a summary of the study and its findings. The original research questions are discussed in light of possible explanations for the findings. Implications for special educators and suggestions for further research are also made.

Summary of Study

The major purpose of this study was to investigate the self-esteem of educable mentally handicapped students in segregated, special education classrooms. In order to do this, a correlation matrix was computed with the variables of I.Q., self-esteem, behaviour and attitude toward teacher (Table 3, p.52), and a t-test examined differences between group means for specific variables (Table 4, p.55).

A review of the related literature revealed that although self-concept theory has been in existence since the seventeenth century, very little has been accomplished in relating it to special students. Studies that had been conducted were largely of the pre- and post-segregated class placement effects on self-esteem, resulting in findings that were conflicting and divergent.

The review of the literature also reflected many and often divergent views and definitions of "intelligence." The author, however, adopted an operational definition which suggested that intelligence is "what intelligence tests

measure" (Sattler, 1974). As a result a lower (than average) score on an intelligence test was interpreted as being suggestive of a particular classification or level of intellectual functioning (Appendix D).

A further review of the literature revealed the importance of "attitudes" and their consequent behaviours as being highly relevant to the development of self-esteem.

In addition, with regard to the variables of intelligence, attitudes and behaviour, there is considerable agreement in the literature that they, too, have an effect on self-esteem. However, the nature of their interrelationships varies from study to study. Therefore, one of the purposes of this study was to examine the relationships between selected variables, within a special education setting.

Seventy Junior Opportunity students (Educable Mentally Handicapped), in eleven classes of the Edmonton Public School System constituted the sample. All of the pupils were given the Canadian Self-esteem Inventory for Children Form A, and the About My Teacher questionnaire. Teachers of the participating students completed a Teacher Behaviour Rating Form for each child. Intelligence quotient scores were obtained for all students from the cumulative records.

All data was collected by the examiner utilizing standardized administration procedures in each class. Data was then hand scored and statistically analysed using the Product Moment Correlation and T-test methods.

Mean Self-esteem of EMH Students

As indicated in Appendix E, p.98 , the mean self-esteem of the EMH sample was 33.75, out of a total of 50 points, with a standard deviation of 7.72. Battle (1976) using the same instrument with a sample of "normal" students of approximately the same chronological age (9 to 10), obtained a self-esteem mean of 34.82, and a standard deviation of 8.23.

It will be noted that the two means are not significantly different. Thus the performance of the students in this study does not support the hypothesis suggested by Laurence & Winchel (1973) that EMH students in general have negative self-esteem. Nor does it give support to the theory of Goldstein & Seigle (1961) that a characteristic of the mentally handicapped is a proneness to self-devaluate, which is due, at least in part, to the failures they experience, and concomitantly results in negative self-esteem. Since the self-esteem of the students comprising the sample was not significantly more negative than the self-esteem of their normal age-peers, it is possible to speculate that the sample students have been exposed to enough success experiences to prevent self-devaluation. Thus, if success is enhancing the self-esteem of the special students, the situation can be assumed to be in agreement with Smith's (1960) hypothesis that self-esteem is weighted at the positive end by success.

Felker (1974) suggested that EMH students suffer from lower self-esteem due, in part, to the lack of learned ability to give positive self-reinforcement. Again it is possible to

speculate that the sample subjects have been, either directly (via teaching), or indirectly (via modelling), instructed in the administration of self-reinforcement.

The Alberta Special Education Study (1977) also offers a possible explanation for the findings of the present study in terms of direct instruction.

> ". . . there may be emphasis in segregated classrooms (for EMH students) on goals in the affective domain . . . which would result in superior gains in the affective domain." (p.13)

The main findings, conclusions and discussions in relation to the research questions posed in this study are presented below. It should be emphasized that these findings do not imply causality, but rather suggest that certain characteristics are interrelated.

Research Question 1

Does a significant relationship exist between self-esteem and behaviour of EMH students?

The results of the statistical analysis between these two variables confirmed the existence of a significant, positive correlation ($r = .521$). This data supports the hypothesis that educable mentally handicapped students and their teachers arrive at similar inferred student self-esteem.

Since the instruments employed seem to be administrable in the study setting, it is assumed that they could be successfully used in some special class situations (e.g. Junior Opportunity classes), to provide a picture of individual

student self-esteem. This assumption cannot be generalized to all special classes as it is believed, by the author, that primary level students would not be sufficiently mature to respond accurately to the Self-esteem Inventory.

It is possible, however, that student behaviours are, at least in part, the result of teacher expectations, and thus, as was demonstrated in the Rosenthal studies (1971), might be positively correlated with the latter. Making this assumption, the significant correlation between the behaviours, as observed by the teachers, and the self-esteem scores, suggests the importance of teachers' behavioural expectations on the self-esteem of their students.

Worthy of mention is the fact that the correlation coefficient between teacher-rated behaviour and student self-esteem, obtained by this study ($r = .521$) is significantly higher than that found by Battle (1976) with "normal" chronological peers ($r = .36$). Two possible explanations are suggested for this.

1. Since special education classes have smaller enrollments (10 to 12 students as opposed to 20 to 30 students), teachers have a greater opportunity to become acquainted with each student, and thus to make a more accurate assessment of observed behaviours.

2. Special education teachers, during training, are required to complete considerably more courses in psychology than their peers in regular education. It is possible that this training has provided them with a greater awareness of

the individuality of student personalities.

A generality about self-esteem is, then, that it is usually associated with observable behaviours, which can be accurately assessed by teachers. This line of thinking would appear to be in agreement with the opinions of Coopersmith (1959), Battle (1976), Borg (1966), Iano (1972), and Davidson & Lang (1960).

In addition, these observable behaviours and their relationship to self-esteem can be traced back to some of the theorists. They can, according to Maslow (1968) be seen as evidence of the "directing properties" of Esteem Needs. Or, in Freud's (1905) terms, the observable behaviours would be evidence of the ego's action of maintaining a psychic balance, and consequently positive self-esteem. Similarly Cattell (1950) would assume that observable behaviours were indicative of the "process" or "directing" properties of self in an attempt to maintain positive "self-regard". (It should be recalled that "self-regard" was Cattell's term for self-esteem).

Research Question 2

Is there a relationship between the intellectual capacities (I.Q.) of educable mentally handicapped students and their observable classroom behaviours?

The results of the study confirmed that as the intellectual level of EMH students increased, so did their negative behaviours as rated by their teachers. In fact, Group 2

students (I.Q. 76 to 95) were rated as exhibiting significantly more negative behaviour than Group 1 (I.Q. 50 to 75). Several interpretations for this finding may be postulated.

1. Children who exhibit in-class "behaviour problems" or "negative" behaviours, may have been placed in a segregated class for these very reasons. Generally these children would be functioning more closely to the norm in terms of intelligence and their behaviours may have been the determining factor in their placements.

2. It seems possible that the more intelligent the EMH child is, the more aware, and thus more "angry" he is at his "less-than-average" abilities, with the consequence being the display of more negative behaviours. In this case the behaviours may be the result of either awareness of lower I.Q. (relative to the norm), or of the special class placement (assuming, of course, that the student is dissatisfied with the placement).

3. Teacher expectations of the more intelligent within the EMH group may be such that they view the behaviours of these students more critically, or negatively.

Cooley (1902), Mead (1934), Rogers (1951) and other writers have emphasized the importance of the reflected appraisal of others. Thus it may be speculated that if the student perceives himself as being criticized, he will behave in a manner worthy of criticism. This is also consistent with the Rosenthal studies (1971).

In addition, Maslow (1962) stressed the relevance of the external environment, and particularly the impact of

significant others, in influencing the behaviour of an individual.

4. It is possible that Group 2 students, rather than suffering from a lowered intellectual capacity, are, instead, frustrated by a learning disability. Examination of the students' cumulative records revealed, in a number of cases, splintering of skill development (e.g. abnormal strengths and weaknesses in academic abilities) which would tend to support this hypothesis. The daily frustration of having to deal with this disability might result in exhibition of those behaviours rated negatively by teachers.

Jacobson (1964), Coopersmith (1959) and Levita (1965) refer to self-esteem as an "emotional expression" of the self. In the face of daily frustration, this emotional expression could very well be negative.

In addition, it is possible to speculate that a discrepancy exists between the aspirational levels and actual levels of these students. As Mischel (1977) and Wylie (1961) reminded us, this may very well result in observable negative behaviours.

5. Society at large still expects the same behaviour from the educable mentally handicapped child as from others (Bledsoe, 1964). It may be that teachers are thus rating behaviour according to an inappropriate standard. It must be recalled that both Weschler (1974) and Binet (1972) view EMH persons as being, at the very best, "borderline", or "low average" in their capabilities. Perhaps, then, a different classification of behaviour for these persons would be more accurate.

Research Question 3

Does the intelligence of educable mentally handicapped students relate to their self-esteem?

Although the correlation between self-esteem and I.Q. was not statistically significant ($r = -0.119$) a trend was noted suggesting that as I.Q. increased, self-esteem tended to decline. When Group 2 (I.Q. 76 to 95) students were more closely examined, their mean self-esteem was significantly lower than the mean of Group 1 (I.Q. 50 to 75) according to a t-test analysis.

Possibly the original correlation was not significant due to heavy weighting of students in the mid I.Q. range (70 to 75) whose self-esteem scores showed considerable variability.

However, when considering the Group 2 students alone, the fact that they exhibited significantly lower self-esteem than Group 1 students is consistent with findings of Laurence & Winchel (1973), Bennett (1964), Thursten (1959), and Meyer (1966).

Referring back to the historical overview of intelligence (Table 2, p.29) it can be seen that the components of intelligence are many and varied - e.g. sensory processes (Gatton, 1883), memory (Oehrn, 1889), muscular strength (McKeen & Cattell, 1890), ability clusters (Thorndike, 1927), general intelligence (Gilbert, 1893; Thursten, 1938; Vernon, 1950). It is possible to speculate that the Group 2 students, although possessing more of the abilities measured by intelligence tests than Group 1 students, may be lacking in abilities

specifically related to self-esteem enhancement, which are not tested by the intelligence tests.

Furthermore, interpretations of the findings related to this research questions are similar to those presented previously for Research Question 2. It will be recalled that a high positive correlation was obtained between behaviour and self-esteem. Thus it can be speculated that similar reasons as those suggested for negative behaviours can be suggested for negative self-esteem. For example, children may have been placed in special classes for conditions resulting from low self-esteem (as was suggested for negative behaviours) rather than from low intellectual ability. In addition, the following interpretations for Group 2 exhibiting lower self-esteem than Group 1 are proposed.

1. Greater discrepancies exist between achievement and achievement expectancies for Group 2 students. These may be teacher, parent or student established. It will be recalled that many theorists stressed the importance of discrepancies between individual aspirations and actual successes, and their negative affect of self-esteem (Maslow, 1962; James, 1890; Cattell, 1950).

2. Because of their closer similarity in ability to "normal" age peers, Group 2 students may spend more out-of-class time with these peers and consequently be more vulnerable to negative reactions from them. These negative reactions, and possible resultant isolation, could, in turn, serve to decrease the EMH child's self-esteem. If this is the case, segregated placement for these (Group 2) students

may have a negative consequence.

3. It is stated in the Alberta Special Education Study (1977) that "the question of the most appropriate placement (according to I.Q.) of EMH students has not definitely been answered" (p.18). It is possible, as was previously suggested, that some students are placed in segregated classes because of factors associated with negative self-esteem. (It can be recalled that Coopersmith (1959) listed a number of characteristics of persons with low self-esteem, many of which could conceivably be rated negatively by teachers). Thus the inclusion of a self-esteem scale together with an intellectual assessment may assist in deciding the most appropriate placement for the child experiencing difficulties at school.

Research Question 4

Is there a relationship between students' attitudes toward their teachers (e.g. do they like or dislike teachers?) and the students' self-esteem?

The statistical analysis suggested a significant, positive relationship between the way in which students felt about their teachers and students' self-rated self-esteem. The more the student liked the teacher, the higher the student self-esteem tended to be.

This is consistent with the studies of significant others that suggest a definite relationship between the way individuals feel about themselves, and the way they feel about important others (Stock, 1949; Coopersmith, 1959; Davidson & Lang, 1960;

Combs, 1963; Yamamoto, 1972; Murphy, 1947; Wylie, 1961; Beck, 1964).

In addition, the importance of the significant other in self-esteem development can be traced back to many of the earlier theorists (Freud, 1905; Maslow, 1954; Cattell, 1950; Diggory, 1966; James, 1890).

Research Question 5

Do the ways in which students feel about their teachers affect students' observable behaviours?

The statistical analysis suggested no significant correlation between these two variables. It appears that the behaviour of the educable mentally handicapped student, as rated by his teacher, is not related to the way the student feels about his teacher.

It is possible that overt behaviours are affected by so many independent and uncontrolled variables that attitude toward teacher, as an isolated variable, is not of sufficient importance to singularly influence behaviour.

Implications for Special Educators

To the extent that research indicates that self-esteem contributes significantly to personal happiness and effective functioning, these implications may provide guidance for teachers' in-class behaviour.

1. Teachers, as significant others, profoundly affect their students, and influence the development of self-esteem. It is, therefore, their responsibility to provide their students with confrontation of reality together with success

experiences, in an atmosphere of warmth and acceptance. Teachers must be very aware of their influence on the social and emotional development of their students. Similarly, the role of teacher expectancy on achievement and behaviour cannot be overestimated. Realistic and individualistic expectations for each child are paramount. Understanding that an I.Q. score is neither a fixed trait nor a determiner of behaviour is also important.

2. In practice, I.Q. scores seem to be the only criteria that are seriously and consistently used for special class placement (Iano, 1972). However, children who are grouped together because they fall into a specific I.Q. range do not display common self-esteem, or other, characteristics. Since this appears to be particularly true of the students at the upper EMH level (I.Q. 76 to 95), alternate placements, additional testing (with the inclusion of a self-esteem scale) and self-esteem enhancement programmes should be instituted for them. It is the contention of this author that a self-esteem assessment should be a required prerequisite for special class placement.

3. The Canadian Self-esteem Inventory for Children, together with the Teachers' Behaviour Rating Form, both designed by Battle (1976) can provide a useful tool for measuring the self-esteem of Junior Opportunity students.

4. Implicit in the findings from Hypothesis 3 is the fact that EMH children have individual self-esteem needs which do not necessarily relate to their I.Q. scores, and to

their educational needs. Therefore, programme planning for individualized self-esteem enhancement is as necessary as individualized language arts or mathematics.

5. Special class teachers may benefit from orientation and inservice training relative to the direct instruction of self-esteem enhancement, and the establishment of affective domain objectives.

6. If we can assume that the equivalent self-esteem means of EMH and "normal" students is attributable, at least in part, to the self-esteem enhancement effects of the segregated class, continued placement in the segregated class would seem to be implied for some of the EMH children. However, for the students at the upper intellectual level within the EMH group (Group 2 students) segregated placement becomes questionable. At the very least, these students should be integrated with "normal" peers in as many areas as possible (e.g. art, music, health, physical education) to facilitate feelings of worth and to provide appropriate behaviour examples.

Limitations

The following limitations should be observed with respect to the findings of this study and the applicability of the results.

1. The parameters of self-esteem are not sufficiently defined to permit the most valid sampling. The questionnaire-type instrument, by its very nature, is a social instrument whose usefulness cannot possibly be determined in the laboratory (Lecky, 1961). The test of validity reduces

itself to a test of consistency among opinions.

2. Accuracy of the self-report is limited by the level of self-awareness and willingness to co-operate of the Junior Opportunity students, and therefore to the extent that responses recorded are accurate.

3. Results are limited to seventy Junior Opportunity students, plus their eleven special education teachers, during the 1979 1980 school term.

4. There is no way of determining the degree of intensity each item on the check list has for each individual, since the instrument utilizes a "yes" or "no" response as opposed to a scaled response.

5. The information gathered represents personal values and therefore is difficult to use in an objective analysis.

6. The examiner looks at the "person", but the "self" cannot be seen - it must be inferred.

In the light of the above limitations to the present study, the following suggestions for further research are offered.

Suggestions for Additional Research

1. Instruments for measuring the self with more suitable construct validity should be developed. As Wylie (1961) emphasized, we should not be content with face validity for self-report measures, nor with the information at hand regarding reliability for inferring self-esteem (Wylie, 1961; p.98). She further stated that rating scales need to be refined, with the possibility of non-specific criterion-referenced tests being a viable alternative.

2. A study which attempts to control some of the independent variables such as home, peers, sex, and body image should be carried out in order to determine their separate effects on self-esteem.

3. Since most studies to date have utilized the correlational approach, no cause-effect inferences are warranted; no true antecedent-consequence design is evident. A study inforporating such a design would be justified to determine the causal relationships between specific variables. For example, the present study suggested the relationship between attitudes toward teachers and student self-esteem. A further study could pre-test esteem and attitudes, provide an intervention that would attempt to change the attitudes, and post-test both variables.

4. Standardization and scaling procedures of the self-esteem instruments are suggested, such that it is possible to obtain some idea of the relative ordering of group and individual scores, plus the norms for interpretation of scores.

5. A longitudinal study examining self-esteem as a method for prediction of behaviour and academic success is warranted. Wylie (1961) suggested that the addition of more variables should improve the predictability of self-esteem scales.

6. Further research into the suggested high I.Q.-low self-esteem trend in the upper intellectual levels of the EMH population is needed.

7. A study in which observers (teachers) were trained,

would give greater control to the experiment. At present no systematic information is available as to how reports of observers differ according to individual frames of reference. For example, while one observer may report the impression the subject makes, another observer may report inferences concerning the subject's self.

8. Research into treatment destructive to self-esteem needs to be carried out, aimed at limiting or eliminating such tactics.

9. Research into those conditions, specific to the special class, which enhance self-esteem, needs to be carried out.

10. Self-esteem studies in other areas of special education, particularly at the primary level, are recommended.

Concluding Statement

In spite of the limitations of this study, several conclusions can be drawn. The analyses undertaken have revealed a complex matrix of variables surrounding self-esteem and the educable mentally handicapped child, in the segregated classroom. Although the self-esteem of these children has been shown to be comparable to that of their "normal" chronological peers, those students, within the EMH group, exhibiting higher intellectual capacity appeared also to exhibit lower self-esteem. In addition, these more intelligent students appear to be rated more negatively by their teachers with respect to the students' behaviours.

The study also suggested that teachers and students in

segregated classrooms tended to be consistent in the ratings of students' self-esteem.

Finally, the attitudes toward teachers which were held by students in the study appeared to be related to students' self-esteem, although these attitudes did not appear to be related to students' behaviours as rated by the teachers.

Although this study has made a contribution to the understanding of the relationship between self-esteem, intelligence, behaviour and attitudes of E.H children, only by diligent and consistent investigation can the complexity and individual nature of each child's self-esteem be appreciated.

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APPENDIX A

APPENDIX A

THE CANADIAN SELF-ESTEEM INVENTORY FOR CHILDREN

by

James Battle, Ph.D.

Directions:
Please mark each statement in the following way. If the statement describes how you usually feel make a check mark (/) under the "yes" column. If the statement does not describe how you usually feel make a check mark (/) under the "no" column. Please check only one column (either "yes" or "no") for each of the 50 statements. This is not a test and there are no "right" or "wrong" answers.

		YES	NO
1.	I spend a lot of time day dreaming		/
2.	Boys and girls like to play with me	/	
3.	I like to spend most of my time alone		/
4.	I am satisfied with my school work	/	
5.	I have lots of fun with my mother	/	
6.	I wish I were younger		/
7.	I have only a few friends		/
8.	I usually quit when my school work is too hard		/
9.	I have lots of fun with my father	/	
10.	I am happy, most of the time	/	
11.	I have very little trust in myself		/
12.	I like being a boy/girl	/	
13.	Most boys and girls play games better than I do		/
14.	I am doing as well in school as I would like to	/	
15.	I have lots of fun with both of my parents	/	
16.	I usually fail when I try to do important things		/
17.	I often feel ashamed of myself		/
18.	Boys and girls usually choose me to be the leader	/	
19.	I usually can take care of myself	/	
20.	I am a failure at school		/
21.	I find it hard to make up my mind and stick to it		/
22.	My parents make me feel that I am not good enough		/
23.	I often feel that I am no good at all		/

		YES	NO
24.	I have many friends about my own age	/	
25.	Most boys and girls are smarter than I am		/
26.	Most boys and girls are better than I am		/
27.	My parents dislike me because I am not good enough		/
28.	Children pick on me very often		/
29.	I like to play with children younger than I		/
30.	I like to be called on by my teacher to answer questions	/	
31.	I would change many things about myself if I could		/
32.	There are many times when I would like to run away from home		/
33.	I am as happy as most boys and girls	/	
34.	I can do things as well as other boys and girls	/	
35.	I often feel like quitting school		/
36.	I worry a lot		/
37.	My parents understand how I feel	/	
38.	When I have something to say, I usually say it	/	
39.	I am as nice looking as most boys and girls	/	
40.	Other children are mean to me		/
41.	I know myself very well	/	
42.	I am doing the best school work that I can	/	
43.	People can depend on me to keep my promises	/	
44.	My parents think I am a failure		/
45.	I need more friends		/
46.	My teacher feels that I am not good enough		/
47.	My parents love me	/	
48.	Most boys and girls are stronger than I am		/
49.	I am proud of my school work	/	
50.	I often get upset at home		/

APPENDIX B

APPENDIX B

STUDENT _____ SCHOOL _____

TEACHER BEHAVIOUR RATING FORM

prepared by

James Battle, Ph.D.

To the teacher: Please rate your student(s) on each of the following items. Check only one blank for each of the ten items.

1. Does this child seek reassurance when completing tasks by frequently asking if his work is correct?

   _____ always _____ usually _____ sometimes

   _____ seldom _____ never

2. Does this child become irritated, submissive or sullen when he is criticized?

   _____ never _____ seldom _____ sometimes

   _____ usually _____ always

3. Does this child become frightened, unusually nervous, or overly anxious before examinations?

   _____ always _____ usually _____ sometimes

   _____ seldom _____ never

4. Does this child daydream so intensely that instructions frequently have to be repeated to him?

   _____ always _____ usually _____ sometimes

   _____ seldom _____ never

5. Does this child often become frustrated when he cannot successfully complete tasks?

   _____ never _____ seldom _____ sometimes

   _____ usually _____ always

6. Does this youngster demonstrate perseverance? That is, does he generally stay with his assignments until completion?

   _____ always _____ usually _____ sometimes

   _____ seldom _____ never

7. Does this child have confidence in his ability to successfully complete classroom assignments?

_____ always _____ usually _____ sometimes

_____ seldom _____ never

8. Is this child often so discouraged that he frequently "gives up" or fails to complete assignments?

_____ never _____ seldom _____ sometimes

_____ usually _____ always

9. Does this child appear to be anxious and working under a great deal of tension?

_____ always _____ usually _____ sometimes

_____ seldom _____ never

10. Does this child take pride in his school work and esteems himself highly when he successfully completes tasks?

_____ always _____ usually _____ sometimes

_____ seldom _____ never

APPENDIX C

APPENDIX C

About My Teacher - Affective Domain

by

M. R. Beck, Stanford University, 1964

	YES	NO
1. Do you like your teacher?	/	
2. Is your teacher usually kind to you?	/	
3. Do some kids break class rules a lot?		/
4. Does your teacher make you feel like learning?	/	
5. Does your teacher break her promises?		/
6. Do you think your teacher understands people your age?	/	
7. Is your teacher often angry?		/
8. Does your teacher make you want to do good work?	/	
9. Do the other children like your teacher?	/	
10. Does your teacher seem to like children?	/	
11. Does your teacher make you feel like working real hard at your school?	/	
12. Does your teacher sometimes make you feel like crying?		/
13. Is your teacher fun to be with?	/	
14. Is your teacher often in a bad mood?		/
15. Does your teacher sometimes get angry when something funny happens?		/
16. Is it hard to "get along" with your teacher?		/
17. Is your teacher interested in the things you do out of school?	/	
18. Does your teacher sometimes take part in the children's games?	/	
19. Are you afraid to ask your teacher for help?		/
20. Do you think most of the pupils like your teacher?	/	

APPENDIX D

APPENDIX D

	WESCHLER		
IQ	CLASSIFICATION	PERCENT INCLUDED Theoretical Normal Curve	Actual Sample
130 and above	very superior	2.2	2.3
120 - 129	superior	6.7	7.4
110 - 119	high average (bright)	16.1	16.5
90 - 109**	average	50.0	49.4
80 - 89**	low average (dull)	16.1	16.2
70 - 79*	borderline	6.7	6.0
69 and below	mentally deficient	2.2	2.2

BINET

I.Q.	PER CENT	CLASSIFICATION
160 - 169	0.03	very superior
150 - 159	0.2	
140 - 149	1.1	
130 - 139	3.1	
120 - 129	8.2	superior
110 - 110	18.1	high average
100 - 109	23.5	
90 - 99**	23.0	normal or average
80 - 89**	14.5	low average
70 - 79*	5.6	borderline defective
60 - 69*	2.0	
50 - 59*	0.4	
40 - 49	0.2	mentally defective
30 - 39	0.03	

CLASSIFICATIONS OF INTELLIGENCE

* - Areas included in definition of Educable Mentally Handicapped

** - Areas included in study - for purposes of study, students thus classified but placed in E.M.H classes will be considered E.M.H

APPENDIX E

APPENDIX E

Group Means of I.Q., Self-esteem, Behaviour and Attitude

Variable	Mean	SD
I. Q.	71.80	8.7
Self-esteem	33.75	7.72
Teacher-rated behaviour	34.52	7.84
Attitude toward teacher	14.42	3.56